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History and Government of Indiana

*A Supplement to the Indiana Edition
of the*

ELEMENTARY AMERICAN HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

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HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT OF INDIANA¹

HISTORY

THE BEGINNINGS OF INDIANA: HOW GEORGE ROGERS CLARK SAVED THE NORTHWEST

The French in Indiana, 1669. La Salle, one of the heroes of New France, was, so far as we can find out, the first white man to set foot upon the soil of what is now Indiana. In 1669, sixty-two years after the founding of Jamestown, he entered the territory and at about the same time he passed along its entire southern boundary. Two or three years later he probably crossed the northwestern corner of the State. He visited the territory several times after this date, and was probably on the Wabash River. In 1679 and 1680 his regular route of travel from Canada to Louisiana led him across Indiana by way of the Kankakee and St. Joseph Rivers. The portage (the carry between rivers) was made near the present site of South Bend.

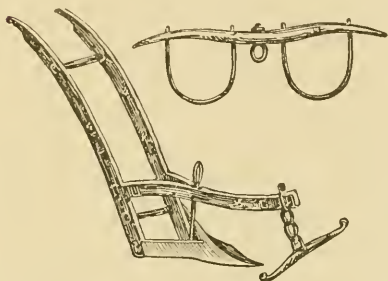
Early Settlements. The first settlement within the boundaries of the State of Indiana was made at Ouiatanon (pronounced Wee-ot'-a-non) on the Wabash River, about 1720. Ouiatanon was a French trading post and fort, and was located on the north bank of the river, about four miles west of where the city of Lafayette now stands. It contained a number of cabins inclosed in a stockade and was once an important post, because the Wabash River was an important part of the route between Canada and Louisiana. The post disappeared more than a century ago, but its approximate site is marked by a stone pillar erected by one of the local chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

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Vincennes, named from its founder, was the second post in the state, and was established about 1727. It was at first a trading post, then a fort, and remains to-day one of the most interesting places in the West. It is the county seat of Knox county and has a population of about 15,000 people.

Later the early French settlers, especially about Vincennes, began to cultivate the soil. Their farming was of the rudest kind. Their plows were made entirely of wood with the exception of the points, which were of iron. There were no traces or whiffletrees. Oxen were attached to the beam, not by a yoke about the

neck, as is customary, but by means of a stick bound to the horns by thongs of rawhide. The oxen then drew the plow by pushing with their heads.



A PLOW AND YOKE OF THE EARLY DAYS

A Change of Masters. As a result of the French and Indian War a new flag waved over Indiana. France had possession of the Mississippi Valley from the time of La

Salle to the close of this war. By the treaty of 1763, however, she ceded to Great Britain all of her possessions east of the Mississippi with the exception of a small tract of land where the city of New Orleans now stands. This transfer of authority, however, made but little difference in the daily life of the French frontiersman. He continued to occupy his isolated posts and to trade with the Indians and, in some localities, to carry on agricultural pursuits in a simple way.

Clark's Plan to Capture the Northwest. George Rogers Clark, a natural leader of men, conceived the idea of driving the British power from this region and of winning or forcing the Indians to live in peace with the Americans. He believed that the pioneer settlements could never have peace from Indian attacks until this were done. His plan was to lead an army

against the British, capture the forts and control the country from the Ohio to the Mississippi, and to the Great Lakes. To Clark's plans and to his adventurous daring in carrying them out, the United States owes its possession of the "Old Northwest."

However, it was necessary that Clark first get the approval and authority of the State of Virginia, which claimed the right to govern the land which Clark proposed to invade. Also he needed men, arms, provisions, and money. Clark had the will and he soon found the way. He made up his mind to go back to Virginia and secure authority and aid. That journey from Kentucky to Williamsburgh, the old capital of Virginia, showed the mettle of the man. The country was a wilderness without roads, or with nothing better than Indian trails. Clark and his companion, Gabriel Jones, had to find their way through woods and thickets. They swam the larger streams and often-times at night they lay down to sleep under the open sky with



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK

The daring frontier fighter was born in Virginia in 1752 and died in Kentucky in 1818. "His great services to his country in making the frontiers a safe dwelling place were overlooked by his countrymen, and he died in poverty and obscurity."

only the trees and stars above them for a shelter. After weary days and nights they reached Williamsburgh. Clark explained his plans to the Governor, Patrick Henry, who sympathized with him and gave him a letter to the Council. After delays and difficulties, the Governor and Council finally approved the plans of Clark. They promised him five hundred pounds of powder to help the western settlers to defend themselves. He also secured the recognition of Kentucky as a county of Virginia,

and he was finally authorized to raise a force to set out on his perilous expedition to the Northwest.

Clark's Instructions. Clark had to keep his plans a secret in order that the British and Indians might not hear of them and be prepared to resist. So he had two sets of instructions. The *public* ones authorized him to raise a force to defend the settlements of Kentucky; the *private* ones authorized him to attack Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi in Illinois. With the assistance of Captain William Herrod, Captain Bowman and Captain Helm, he gathered together 153 men on Corn Island in the Ohio River, near the present site of Louisville, and on June 24, 1778, set out with this little band to wrest the control of the Northwest from the British. His boats shot the falls of the Ohio and were rowed down the river for four days, to the mouth of the Tennessee. Here he landed his men and proceeded to march northwest across the country 120 miles to attack Kaskaskia (see map, page 158). On July 4, 1778, Clark's force arrived at the town, which he captured by surprise and without bloodshed. The people of Kaskaskia were rejoiced to learn that Colonel Clark did not intend to molest them nor to interfere in any way with their liberties. Their good priest, Father Gibault, explained this to them in the church and secured their allegiance to the American cause and many of these French settlers joined Clark's little army to fight against the British.

The British Recapture Vincennes. The British were by no means ready to give up the country without further struggle. In the fall of 1778, the British General, Henry Hamilton, Lieutenant Governor of Detroit, raised a force of thirty regulars, fifty Canadian volunteers and four hundred Indians and proceeded by way of the Wabash to Vincennes. When Hamilton with this force appeared before the fort and demanded its surrender, Captain Helm was in the fort in command of one man; but standing over a loaded cannon with a burning match in his hand, he demanded recognition as a soldier before his surrender. This was conceded and we have the funny story of Captain

Helm marching his one man out and yielding his "command" with all due pomp and ceremony of war. Vincennes was again a British post.

Clark was still at Kaskaskia and he knew but little of the situation at Vincennes, not even being certain that it had fallen to the British. Now appears upon the scene another man to whom Indiana and the Northwest owe a lasting debt of gratitude. This was Colonel Francis Vigo. General Clark, Father Gibault, Francis Vigo—here were three noble co-workers for the American cause in the history of the "Old Northwest." Clark was looked to as an unconquerable soldier, skillful in strategy daring in battle; Father Gibault was looked to in matters of morality and religion, and Francis Vigo in matters of credit and finance. It was Vigo who helped Clark with information, money, credit, and provisions, and without such help it is hard to see how the conquest of the West could have been achieved.

Francis Vigo. Vigo was born in Sardinia, of Spanish parents, about 1747. He served in the Spanish army, drifted to America, became a fur-trader and general merchant, with headquarters at St. Louis. He met Clark at Kaskaskia and offered his sympathy and services to the American cause. Clark sent him to Vincennes to report on the condition of affairs there. Vigo was captured on the journey by hostile Indians and was made a prisoner in Fort Sackville, Vincennes, and was suspected of being a spy. He refused to accept his liberty when it was offered to him on condition that he would agree not to do any act during the war injurious to British interests. Father Gibault, then at Vincennes, interceded for Vigo. He went to the fort, with other citizens, and notified the British commander that the people would furnish no more supplies to the garrison until Vigo was released. Hamilton let him go on condition that he would "not do anything injurious to the British on his way to St. Louis."¹ Vigo started for St. Louis in a sort of dug-out canoe, with two *voyageurs*, going down the Wabash, down the Ohio, up the

¹ Dunn's Indiana, p. 140.

Mississippi. He kept his word to Hamilton *all the way to St. Louis*. He was then free from his parole. He spent a few minutes in changing his clothes and getting some supplies and then started by boat for Kaskaskia to tell Clark about the situation at Vincennes.

Clark Decides on a Mid-Winter March. It was this information given by Vigo of the continued friendship of the Vincennes people for Clark's cause and of the plans of Hamilton and the British forces that led Clark to make his famous and terrible mid-winter campaign which resulted in the second and final capture of Ft. Sackville and Vincennes. Hamilton with 80 men in the fort had settled down in fancied security for the winter. He supposed his enemy's forces were too far away to reach him until settled weather in the spring. By that time he was expecting to have re-enforcements, a large force of regulars and a thousand or more Indians. He could then march against Kaskaskia and capture or destroy Clark's force.

In this desperate situation Clark decided to strike and surprise his foe. He acted with his usual promptness and daring. If he waited till spring Hamilton would probably take him; so he would not wait, but march in mid-winter and take Hamilton. His men were too few to stand a siege, his situation too remote to call for assistance. He saw no other opportunity of securing the country. He could wait and be captured; he could go back home and save himself and his men. But no such thought was in harmony with the spirit of George Rogers Clark. If he saved himself he could not save the Northwest. He resolved upon another great adventure.

He fitted out a Mississippi River boat, called the "Willing," a wonder to the inhabitants, "the like of which," Clark said, "had never been seen in the country before." On this he mounted eight guns and loaded forty-four men with ammunition and provisions. The boat was to take the men by the river route to Vincennes and connect there with another force which was to march overland.

The day after the "Willing" started down the river Clark's land forces started for Vincennes on their ever-memorable march. It was in the dead of winter, the 5th of February, 1779. There were 170 men in the company and they had to cover a distance from Kaskaskia to Vincennes of 240 miles, over the route to be traveled. As the little band of warriors started on their perilous march they received the blessing of Father Gibault.



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK ON THE MARCH TO VINCENNES

The Perils of the March. It is impossible to describe the hardships of that winter march. It was not extremely cold, but there had been heavy rains, the rivers were out of their banks, the prairie bottoms were overflowed, and in many places the men had to march through icy water waist deep. Clark tells an interesting story of some of the hardships they suffered. There was a fourteen-year old drummer boy in one of the companies and a big sergeant six feet two. Clark mounted the little drummer on the shoulders of the stalwart sergeant and gave orders to advance

into the half-frozen water. The drummer beat the charge from his lofty perch and General Clark, with sword in hand, shouted, "Forward march!" Amused at the sight, the men obeyed the command, and plunged into the icy flood. Some fell exhausted, but their stronger comrades lifted them, holding their heads above the water, and dragged them on. Thus in spite of all obstacles they reached the higher land in safety.

Thus the men were encouraged to march and to *keep their powder dry*. Clark encouraged them in another way, by placing in the rear twenty-five picked men under Major Bowman with orders to shoot any man who refused to march.

Clark, now before Vincennes, knew that there was no possibility of retreat. His little band of 170 men were in full view of a town that had upwards of 600 men in it, troops, inhabitants, and Indians. Clark could not wait for the men who were coming by boat. "The idea of being made prisoners was foreign to most every man, as they expected nothing but torture from the savages, if they fell into their hands. Our fate was now to be determined probably in a few hours. We knew that nothing but the most daring conduct would ensure success."¹ Thus spoke the daring soldier and leader of adventure. Clark knew that many of the inhabitants of Post Vincennes were friendly to his cause. He sent a French settler whom he had captured to tell the people of Vincennes that his "army" was about to attack the fort. He issued a placard by this messenger, warning the inhabitants, as true citizens, to keep quiet in their houses and stay off the streets. He urged those who were friends to the king to repair instantly to the fort and "join the hair-buying general and fight like men. Those who are true friends to liberty may depend upon being well treated."

The Capture of Vincennes. The town was easily taken, as its people were willing. Tobacco, the Indian chief, offered one hundred warriors to help take the fort, but their services were declined. The garrison in the fort had no knowledge of

¹ Clark's Journal.

the approaching Americans till firing began. The attack began about dusk. The Americans surrounded the fort on all sides, the attacking force being sheltered by buildings, earthworks, and logs. Clark's frontier soldiers were crack riflemen. They could send a bullet through an auger hole, cut off a chicken's head, and sometimes split a bullet on an ax's edge. A silver dollar was as large a target as they ever needed. So Hamilton could not open his portholes without havoc to his gunners and his cannon could not be fired with any effect. The garrison became disheartened.

A consultation was held, terms of surrender were agreed upon, the garrison became prisoners of war, and the stores and supplies fell to the Americans.

At ten o'clock on the morning of February 25, 1779, Governor Hamilton and his garrison marched out; Clark and his men marched in, secured the arms, and hoisted the American colors. Fort Sackville was changed to Fort Patrick Henry in honor of the Governor of Virginia. Thus the Old Northwest fell into the possession of the Americans, as there was no other point at which the British could make a stand nearer than Detroit.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Write a brief account of Clark's conquest of the Northwest. Trace his march on the map. What services were rendered by Father Gibault and Francis Vigo?
2. Where were the earliest settlements in Indiana? Who were the first explorers?
3. What benefits came from Clark's conquest?

THE ORDINANCE OF 1787 AND INDIANA TERRITORY

Several States Claimed the Northwest. The Northwest had been conquered. It had now to be governed. It will be remembered that Clark's expedition had been sent out by Virginia and that State continued to claim the Northwest Territory. Other States had claims to parts of it, too.¹ Virginia called the Northwest Territory one of her counties—the "County of Illinois," and Governor Patrick Henry sent out Colonel John Todd to be the Territorial Governor and a Virginia court was held at Vincennes. But Virginia was soon persuaded to cede this land to the United States. It will be remembered that when the Union was being formed and the "Articles of Confederation" were submitted to the States for approval, Maryland refused to come into the Union until the western lands were given over to the General Government (see page 168). Congress sought to persuade the claimant States to do this, promising² to govern the territory in the common interest of all and to erect there "equal Republican states" to be admitted later to the Union on an equal footing with the other States. In this Congress expressed the wise policy toward our Territories that has been followed ever since. They were not to be held in subjection without the rights of self-government, but were to be made into States and admitted to the Union as soon as certain conditions were fulfilled.

With this understanding, Virginia and the other States, between 1780 and 1786, relinquished their claims to the Northwest, and this territory came under the control of the United States. Its common ownership became a strong bond of union among the States.³

¹ New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut.

² Oct., 1780.

³ Thomas Jefferson and James Monroe, two men who afterwards became Presidents of the United States, signed the deed when Virginia granted this land to the United States. One of the conditions of this grant to the United States was that 150,000 acres of land should be given to Colonel Clark, his officers and men. This tract was laid off near the Falls of the Ohio and is known as "Clark's Grant."

Ordinance of 1787. On July 13, 1787, the first government was provided for this territory by the famous Ordinance of 1787.

This great Ordinance was a pattern for all subsequent acts organizing governments for United States Territories. This first "organizing act" created a civil government for the Territory, providing for a Governor with a term of three years, a Secretary with a term of four years, and three judges to serve during good behavior. The Governor and Judges were to proclaim such laws as they wished to choose from the laws of the original States, and these were to be in force until changed by a later Territorial Legislature. As soon as there were 5000 inhabitants in the Territory they were to be allowed to elect representatives to a General Assembly. The laws were then to be made by a House of Representatives, a Legislative Council, and the Governor.¹ Then in order "to extend the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty which form the basis on which republics are erected," certain articles of compact were agreed to between the original States and the people who were to settle in the Northwest.

Solemn Articles of Compact Made by Congress for the Settlers in the Northwest. These agreements were to remain forever unalterable unless repealed by common consent. These "articles of compact" guaranteed to the people of the Northwest the following fundamental rights:

1. That from the Northwest Territory there should be erected not fewer than three nor more than five States, and that whenever any of these States should have 60,000 free inhabitants it should be admitted to the Union on an equal footing with the original States—in keeping with the promise already made by Congress while that body was trying to persuade Virginia to give up her claims.

2. *Freedom of Religion.* "No person demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner shall ever be molested on

¹ The Council was to consist of five members chosen by Congress from a list of ten submitted by the House of Representatives of the Territory.

account of his mode of worship in said territories." This provided in the future of the Northwest, "a free church in a free State."

3. *Civil Liberty.* The writ of habeas corpus, trial by jury, fair representation of the people in the law-making body, moderate fines, no cruel punishments, the rights of liberty and property—these rights usually contained in a "bill of rights" (see page 167) were guaranteed to the people.

4. *Public Education.* "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." Here is the suggestion and the guarantee of the free common school system for the States of the Northwest. There was to be a free school as well as a free church.

5. *Free Soil.* "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude otherwise than in punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted." In this immortal language of the great Ordinance we find the promise that the new States of the Northwest should be *free*. The Ordinance of 1787 indicated the policy of the fathers and founders of the Republic to prevent the spread of human slavery.

Governor St. Clair and the New Government. In 1787, Arthur St. Clair was made Governor of the Northwest Territory. His attention was given largely to the task of pacifying or fighting the Indians. He was directed to be friendly with the chiefs, to prevent their tribes from uniting if possible, and to do all he could to acquire their lands by purchase. His seat of government, or the capital, was at Marietta (Ohio), but he was to go to Vincennes and Kaskaskia to organize counties and adjust land claims. He was soon called back to coöperate with General Harmar against the Indians. While he was absent on his notable Indian campaign, the Secretary of the Territory, Winthrop Sargent, acted as Governor. He went to Vincennes and laid out the County of Knox, embracing an extent of land since made into thirty counties. This was the first county organized in the

State and it took its name from General Knox, who was then President Washington's Secretary of War.

Early Conditions at Vincennes. The Governor and the Judges found moral conditions bad at Vincennes. Drunkenness and gambling were common and murders of frequent occurrence. The Acting Governor and the two judges, John Cleves Symmes, and George Turner, made, or announced, the first three laws for Indiana in 1791. These early laws had for their purpose to prevent the sale of intoxicating drinks to Indians, to regulate the sale of liquors to soldiers, to suppress gambling, and to prevent the soldiers from selling their arms, ammunition, and clothing, which was being done, probably, either at gambling or to get money for the purpose of gambling. All gambling debts and contracts were made illegal.

Difficulties of the Judges. The government of the Territory under the judges was almost absolute. If the judges could not find a suitable law in one of the older States they made one to suit themselves. They announced what the law should be and then tried offenders for violations. They had a hard time in putting their laws into operation. Courts had to be held at Marietta, Cincinnati, Vincennes, Kaskaskia, and Detroit. There were points in the circuit 1300 miles apart. "The roads were mere bridle paths, which led for hundreds of miles through the Indian country. There were no taverns and the nights were spent on the lonely trails, or in the dirty wigwams of the hospitable natives, or in the solitude of the forest with no protection but their blankets. In fair weather in spring and autumn the trips were pleasant, but in the heat of summer and cold of winter the hardships tried the endurance of the strongest. Judge Parsons lost his life in an attempt to swim a flooded stream on one of these trips.¹

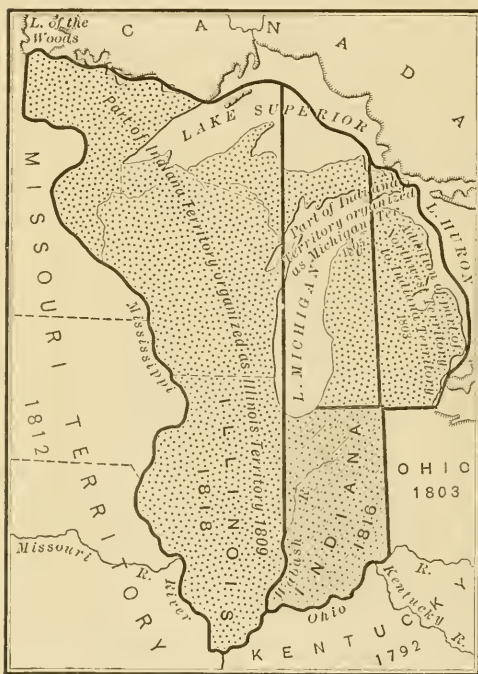
Division of the Northwest Territory. In 1800, the Northwest Territory was divided. This was found to be necessary if justice was to be administered. Think of judges holding

¹ Esarey, History of Indiana, p. 141.

court in a district embracing such widely separate points as Kaskaskia, Marietta, and Detroit! In the western counties only one session of court had been held in a period of five years. Crime could not be punished and the region was becoming a resort for outlaws and criminals. The new dividing-line ran

from opposite the mouth of the Kentucky River to Fort Recovery (east of Jay County, Indiana) and then due north to Canada (see map).

The land east of this line still retained the name of the "Northwest Territory," while that to the west was called "Indiana Territory." The former embraced Ohio and a part of the present State of Michigan, while the Indiana Territory embraced all the rest of the "Old Northwest." Ohio was getting ready for Statehood and was admitted to the Union in 1803.



THE INDIANA TERRITORY

Indiana Territory was reduced in 1805 and again in 1809. After the second reduction its boundaries were nearly the same as the present state boundaries.

Vincennes, the New Territorial Capital. Vincennes was made the capital of the new Indiana Territory and William Henry Harrison was made the first Territorial Governor. The executive Journal begins as follows:

"St. Vincennes, July 4, 1800. This day the government of

the Indiana Territory commenced, William Henry Harrison having been appointed Governor, John Gibson, Secretary, William Clarke, Henry Vanderburgh, and John Griffin, Judges in and over said Territory."

Indiana Territory again Divided. In 1804 Governor Harrison declared that the new Indiana Territory had a population



THE OLD STATE HOUSE AT CORYDON

This building was the Capitol of Indiana from 1813 to 1825. It was built of limestone from the adjacent bluffs and is a solid structure to-day. The walls of the first story are two and a half feet in thickness. The building is forty feet square. It is now the Court House of Harrison County.

large enough to entitle it to become a Territory of the "second grade." That is, instead of the absolute government by Governor and judges a *representative legislature* should be elected and a Council (Senate) should be appointed. Congress consented to this in 1805 and Indiana was again divided, Michigan being set off as a separate Territory. In 1809 there was still another division and Illinois was set off and the Territory of Indiana was

reduced essentially to the size and limits that it now has as a State.

William Henry Harrison continued to act as Territorial Governor until 1812, when he was succeeded by Governor Thomas Posey, a veteran officer of the Revolutionary War. Posey was Governor of the Territory until Indiana was admitted to the Union in 1816. In 1813 the Territorial capital was changed from Vincennes to Corydon, now the county seat of Harrison County. This beautiful little town in the extreme southern part of the State, about twenty miles from the Ohio River, was chosen as being "nearer to the centre of population." Almost all of the white population at that time was in the southern part of the State.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What great privileges were guaranteed to the people of the Northwest by the Ordinance of 1787? How did this Territory finally come into the possession of the United States?
2. Tell how the Northwest Territory was governed and indicate its later divisions. See the map page 488.

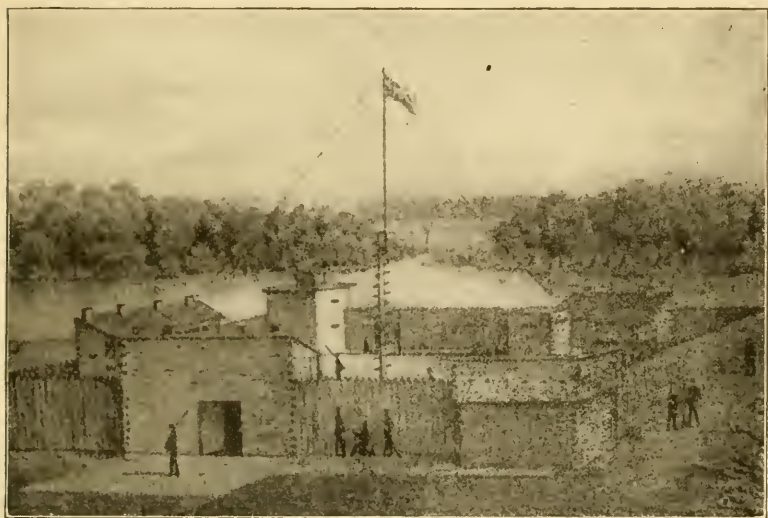
THE STRUGGLE WITH THE INDIANS

Indian Tribes in Indiana. The Indians living on the soil of Indiana belonged to the Miami confederacy. The Piankeshaw tribe lived on the lower Wabash; next above them were the Vermillion villages; then came the Weas at what is now Lafayette; to the west were the Shockeys and Kickapoos on the prairies; on lower Eel river were the Miamis proper; north of them among the lakes were the Pottawatomies; around Fort Wayne were the Tightwees; and on the Mississinewa were the Munsees. All these were kindred tribes and lived together in peace.

While the United States asserted its right to control the territory and make laws for it, the Indians claimed the ownership of the land. White settlers were not allowed to buy land directly from the Indians, but the Government sought to get the Indians

by treaties to yield the land, and then it would be sold to the whites who wished to build their homes in the West. As the whites increased in number, the Indians felt that they were being forced off their hunting grounds, or cheated out of their rights, and war broke out.

Wayne's Victory at Fallen Timbers, 1794. Fort Wayne Built. The President sent General Anthony Wayne ("Mad Anthony"), a hero of the Revolution, to the Ohio Valley to



FORT WAYNE ABOUT 1812

collect and train an army to conquer the Indians. After three years of fighting, he succeeded in completely defeating the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers, August 20, 1794. The English had promised to support the Indians, but at the last refused, leaving the Indians alone to sustain their defeat. All the towns and fields of growing corn were destroyed. General Wayne built a strong fort where Fort Wayne now stands, October, 1794, and left enough soldiers there to compel the Indians to behave.

Treaty of Greenville, 1795. The next summer, at Fort Greenville, Wayne made a treaty with the Indians at which they gave up all land south of a line from the headwaters of the Cuyahoga River to Fort Recovery, and then to the mouth of the Kentucky just above Madison. This was known among the pioneers as the Greenville Treaty Line.

Missionary Work among the Indians: the Curse of Strong Drink. Following the Treaty of Greenville for a period of fifteen years, from 1795 to 1810, the Indians of Indiana were quiet and peaceful. From year to year they ceded their lands to the government and accepted homes beyond the Mississippi River; in 1803 the Piankeshaws, in 1809 the Kickapoos and Shockeys, sold out and went west. The government paid them fairly good prices and spent large sums of money trying in vain to teach them the arts of peace. Blacksmiths and other artisans were sent among them to teach them to work. They wished to hunt and fish and wander over the land, but not to cultivate the soil and make settled homes under law. The Catholics, Moravians, Baptists, and Quakers, established missions among them, teaching the Indian children. Under this influence they were making some progress. They planted orchards, cultivated gardens, raised cattle, hogs, and especially horses. The great curse of the Indians of that time was the whiskey sold to them by unprincipled traders. Governor William Henry Harrison made every effort to stop this sale but failed. The tribesmen would go hundreds of miles for the bad whiskey and trade for it anything they possessed, even to their guns and clothing. The drunken Indians, now turned into "bad Indians," then committed all kinds of crimes against the settlers. There were bad whites in the country and sometimes these bad men would lure the Indians into the towns, get them drunk and then rob them. If bad and drunken Indians killed some white men, the whites would retaliate and kill a lot of Indians; and thus bad blood was aroused between the red men and the settlers. Many of the whites seemed to think that "the only good Indian was a dead Indian."

They wanted the Indian lands and they were too often ready to cheat them or drive them off or kill them. But on the other hand there were a number of noble white missionaries who lived among the Indians, shared their hardships, tried to help them and teach them better ways of living.¹

A New War Spirit. By 1811 a generation of Indians and settlers had grown up who had forgotten the hardships of the war from 1790 to 1795 and they began to talk again of war. The settlers were crowding over into the Indian hunting grounds all along the line. In 1809 Harrison purchased all the Indian lands up the Wabash to Parke and Vermillion counties, so that Indians might not hunt south of a line running from Montezuma to Brownstown and from thence to Fort Recovery. This was known for many years as the Indian Boundary Line, the west part of it being called the "Ten o'clock" line—being the direction in which a shadow would fall at ten o'clock at a certain time of year.

Tecumseh and the Prophet. Tecumseh and his brother the Prophet, two Shawnee warriors, made their home at Andersontown, near the present city of Anderson, and began to gather around them all the dissatisfied warriors. The Prophet was a famous preacher and reformer. Indians came hundreds of miles to hear him "prophesy," or preach. He charged all the misfortune of the Indians to the white men, and gradually aroused his hearers to the point of war.

On the order of Governor Harrison the Prophet was compelled to leave Andersontown, and then he made his home on the bluff about five miles east of Lafayette on the north side of the Wabash. This village, known as the "Prophetstown," became the gathering place for all the Indians who opposed the settlers.

Fort Harrison. President Jefferson became alarmed at the reports of Harrison and sent him a regiment of regular troops

¹ Read the story of Isaac McCoy and his wife among the Indians, Esarey's History of Indiana, pp. 230-232.

to defend Vincennes. With these and the Indiana militia and a few Kentucky volunteers, 910 in all, General Harrison set out from Fort Knox, just above Vincennes, September 26, 1811, to destroy the Indian town. Near Terre Haute he stopped long enough to build Fort Harrison and then pushed on up the Wabash Valley. On the night of November 6, Harrison camped about two miles from the Prophetstown.

The Battle of Tippecanoe. On the morning of November 7, before daybreak, the Indians under Tecumseh attacked Harrison's army and kept up the bloody battle till after daylight. The fighting was furious, hand to hand in many places. The Indians were beaten off after daylight, but not until they had killed 62 white men and wounded 126. The Indians left 37 dead upon the field. It was a costly victory, but the Indians were completely defeated. Harrison's victory at Tippecanoe broke the Indian power in Indiana.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Name the principal Indian tribes in early Indiana. Give an account of the wars with the Indians indicating the significance of (a) Wayne's victory at Fallen Timbers. (b) The Treaty of Greenville. (c) Tecumseh and the Battle of Tippecanoe.

2. How did the white settlers treat the Indians? What did the missionaries do for them? How were their lands obtained by the whites? Did the Indians have a right to keep the land?

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE STATE

The Birth of the State. The birthday of Indiana was December 11, 1816. That was the day of her admission to Statehood, and after that her Representatives and Senators could take their seats in Congress.

In 1815 a census of Indiana Territory was taken and the returns showed that there were 63,897 white inhabitants. According to the Ordinance of 1787 a population of 60,000 entitled the Territory to Statehood. Accordingly, the Territorial Legis-



lature sent a petition to Congress asking that body to authorize the formation of a new State. Jonathan Jennings, who was Indiana's Territorial delegate in Congress, presented this petition, and "good old Dennis Pennington," of Corydon, was the Speaker of the Indiana House whose name was signed to the petition.

Congress consented to this request, and on April 18, 1816, the President signed the "enabling act" for Indiana. On May 13 the voters of Indiana elected delegates to a convention for the purpose of drawing up a constitution.

The Constitution was Formed. This convention met at Corydon, the Territorial capital, on June 10, 1816, and after deliberating nineteen days, on June 29, declared the new constitution for Indiana adopted. Usually a convention in making a constitution will submit the document to the people to be approved or rejected at the polls, but in this case the convention at Corydon declared the constitution in operation and set August 5, 1816, for the election of the first State officers.

In the August election Jonathan Jennings of Clark County was elected Governor, Christopher Harrison of Washington County was elected Lieutenant Governor, and William Hendricks of Jefferson County was elected as Indiana's Representative in Congress, only one Representative being allotted to the State owing to its small population.

Governor Jennings called the General Assembly of the State to meet at Corydon in November, and that body elected as the first United States Senators from Indiana James Noble of Franklin County and Waller Taylor of Knox County. The Legislature also elected William H. Lilly as Auditor of State, and Daniel C. Lane as Treasurer of State, and named three Electors to cast the electoral vote of the new State for James Monroe for President.

Such were the steps in the creation of the new State of Indiana. The work was all done by November, 1816, and a month later Congress pronounced the work to be good and passed the final act of admission, which was signed by President Madison December 11, 1816.

The Convention at Corydon. The Constitutional convention at Corydon was an historic assembly. Forty-three delegates were elected from 13 counties. They met during the warm days of June, and many of their sessions were held under the wide-branching limbs of a great elm which still stands and is one of the historic sights of the State. Jonathan Jennings was President of the convention and William Hendricks was the Secretary.



THE CONSTITUTIONAL ELM

A large part of the work of the constitutional convention which drafted the Indiana constitution of 1816, was done in the shade of a spreading elm, which still stands at Corydon. The above picture was made from a recent photograph.

The convention was composed mainly of clear-headed patriotic men of good common sense who believed in the principles of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States. Our first constitution, which they drew up, was a short and simple document. It contained a "bill of rights" and set out a framework of government.

A large part of its provisions were copied from the constitutions of Ohio and Kentucky, just as those constitutions had been copied from the constitutions of Massachusetts and Virginia. So we see the institutions and laws of the old States were being transplanted to the West. The convention finished its work in less than three weeks. The members wanted to get home to their harvests and to help get the new constitution into operation.

The New Purchase, 1818. When Indiana was admitted to the Union the Indians still had claims to fully two thirds of the lands of the State. In 1818 Governor Jennings was appointed by the United States Government as one of three commissioners charged with the task of buying more land from the Indians. The com-

missioners held a conference with the Indians at St. Mary's, Ohio, and succeeded in purchasing nearly all the land south and east of the Wabash, bounded on the southeast by the "ten o'clock line," running from a point in Jackson County to a point on the Wabash in Vermillion County. From this great tract of land, called the "New Purchase," thirty-seven counties have since been made. For it the Indians received \$13,000 in a lump sum with a promise of \$8,000 annually thereafter. Soon afterwards these Indian tribes began their long march to the newer frontier beyond the "Father of Waters."¹

New Harmony: The Rappites and the Owens. One of the early noted settlements in Indiana was at New Harmony, on the banks of the lower Wabash. In 1814, the Germans who lived in the "Harmonie Community" in Pennsylvania, sold their homes and bought a large tract

of 17,000 acres in Posey county. They cleared the land and built up mills and factories and vineyards and farms. From their leader, Frederick Rappe, they were called "Rappites." They sold their New Harmony settlement, grown to 30,000 acres, to Robert Owen in 1825 for \$150,000. Owen



INDIANA IN 1818, SHOWING THE "NEW PURCHASE"

¹ Baynard R. Hall, the first professor in the State University, wrote a book entitled "The New Purchase, or Seven and a Half Years in the Far West," which tells much of interest about early conditions in Indiana.

was a rich manufacturer and philanthropist of Scotland and is known as the "father of modern socialism." He wished to relieve the hard condition of the factory laborers. He would establish a community in the far west of America where land was cheap, in which the laborers would receive the products of their toil, where there would be no rich and no poor, where all the goods and money would come into a common store and where all the toilers would share alike in having their needs supplied. It was an attempt at communism. It did not last long on the communistic basis, but New Harmony came to be a centre of influence in the state. Libraries and schools were established, industry was cultivated, the natural sciences advanced, and a strong intellectual community grew up. Three noted sons of Robert Owen became leaders in the State: David Dale Owen, a State Geologist; Col. Richard Owen, scientist, soldier, and professor in the State University; and Robert Dale Owen, the most distinguished of the three, a legislator, statesman, and diplomatist. It was largely through the efforts of Robert Dale Owen in the legislature (in 1846-47) that property rights for women were secured in Indiana.¹

Moving the State Capital. The tide of settlement was now setting toward the north. Now that the New Purchase had cleared the way and cheap land could be had from the Government, the "movers" from the south were pushing up farther and farther from the Ohio River; new counties were being laid out, and immigrants were coming from New England, New York and Pennsylvania into the northern part of the State. It was seen by all that a new capital would have to be decided upon nearer the centre of population. In 1819 Governor Jennings advised

¹There are fitting monuments to two of the Owens at the State House in Indianapolis. The women of Indiana erected the one to Robert Dale Owen, and the other was presented to the State by surviving Confederate prisoners for the kind treatment they received from Professor Richard Owen while he was the Colonel in command of the Federal prison in Indianapolis during the Civil War. It is doubtful whether in the history of the world any other monument was ever prompted from such a motive or for such a reason.

the General Assembly that "moving time" had come. A commission of ten men were appointed to select a new site for the capital. The men examined several places, but finally decided in favor of "the mouth of Fall Creek on the West Fork of White River," where the city of Indianapolis now stands. In 1824 the



THE INDIANA STATE CAPITOL BUILDING AT INDIANAPOLIS

The Indiana Capitol is located on Washington Street and occupies nearly ten acres of land. It is 406 feet long, 285 feet wide, and the top of the dome is 234 feet high. The legislative halls and the offices of the state officials are in this building. The statue of Thomas A. Hendricks is in the foreground in this picture.

change was made while Indianapolis was only a "capital in the wilderness." General John Carr, the agent for the new town, conducted the first land sales and sold about three hundred lots at an average price of \$125 apiece. Sites have since sold for nearly a million dollars which could then have been bought for \$200 or \$300. Samuel Merrill, the Treasurer of State, trans-

ported his family and the books and effects and money of the State in a wagon drawn by a four-horse team, with bells on the horses, over the wilderness roads from Corydon to Indianapolis. The story of that drive is one of the interesting stories of early Indiana life.¹

The State had now fairly started upon its career and it was destined within the next forty years to witness a marvelous growth.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Tell how Indiana became a State. Locate Vincennes and Corydon. Tell when the capitals were changed. Give an account of the convention at Corydon.
2. What was the "New Purchase"?
3. Give an account of the life at New Harmony and the work of the Owens.

AN ERA OF EXPANSION—1820-1860

The Growth of the State: the Westward Movement. Following the War of 1812, about the time Indiana was admitted to the Union, a great tide of migration set in toward the West. This movement was one of the most important events in American history. The frontier was moving westward, the Indians were being pushed back, the area of civilization was widening. New homes and new States were being built up in a new "Western World." The men and women who crossed the mountains to build their homes in the wilderness cut themselves off from the old world and faced hardships and dangers in the same spirit that moved Columbus when he sailed the unknown seas. But these early pioneers who settled in Indiana and the West brought with them, for the most part, respect for law, reverence for religion, and a love of civil and religious liberty. They were the advance guard of civilization, the true conquerors of a new world.

The rapid advance of Indiana and the West from 1820 to 1860 seems almost too marvelous for belief. In 1820 the pop-

¹ See the Magazine of Indiana History for March, 1916.

ulation of Indiana was 147,000; it had doubled in four years. By 1830 it had more than doubled again. It was doubled again in another ten years, and in the two decades from 1840 to 1860 the population of the State was again doubled, and at the opening of the Civil War it stood at 1,360,000—about twice the population of the largest of the thirteen original States at the close of the Revolution. Within the memory of middle-aged men the wilderness had been transformed into cities and towns and cultivated farms under a settled and well-ordered State.

How the Settlers Came. The movers and settlers came in a steady stream; most of them in their wagons with their household goods. Some came across the Ohio from Tennessee and Kentucky; others down the Ohio from western Virginia and Pennsylvania; others again through the Cumberland Gap from the Carolinas; while others came across the country and by the Great Lakes from New York and New England. They were attracted by cheap lands and the opportunity to hew out a new career. Here the poor and oppressed from foreign lands could find escape from hard conditions and a chance to own their own homes. The lands were practically free.

Cheap Government Land. In 1802 Congress provided for selling the government land in blocks as small as 320 acres at \$2.00 an acre, and allowing payment by installments after the immigrant had settled upon the land and improved it. After 1820 the price of government land was lowered to \$1.25 an acre. There was plenty of it; the earliest comers had a vast unbroken area from which to choose. Many of the early settlers who could afford it acted upon the advice of Mandy Means to her old man—to “git a plenty while you are gitten.”¹

So the pioneers came to get these lands and to improve their condition and that of their children. The panic of 1819 sent jobless workmen and bankrupt debtors to the West in droves, and Indiana received her share of the home-seekers. They were following the advice given by Horace Greeley a little later, “Go

¹ The “Hoosier Schoolmaster.”

west, young man, and grow up with the country." Many of these "movers" were poor, some of them were coarse and ignorant, but many of them were educated and intellectual, and most of them were ready for hard work. They proved themselves worthy founders of the State. History cannot adequately tell of the drudgery, and hardship, and sacrifice shown among the pioneer mothers and fathers in the great task of building the State.

Log Cabin Days. The pioneers lived at first in humble homes, many of them in log cabins. The log cabin in the woods is a familiar picture. It was made of rough logs often laid with the bark still on. Sometimes the logs were "barked," or hewed, on all four sides and were bound together by gigantic dovetailing called "notching." The spaces in the wall between the logs were "chinked"; that is, a yellow clay was splashed in with the hand and allowed to harden in the sun. The roof of the cabin was made of thick rickety shingles called "clapboards"; these, when *clapped* down, were held in place by long poles laid along the roof and kept apart by shorter pieces fastened between. The bare earth sometimes formed the floor of the poorer cabins, but the better ones had a puncheon floor—large slabs of wood three feet wide and three or four inches thick, resting on timbers called stringers or sleepers. In some cabins there was an attic reached by a rough ladder, or by pegs fastened in the wall. For a window a part of a log was omitted on one side of the cabin which, with the cracks in the wall, gave plenty of ventilation, though on cold nights the window space might be closed against the wind by a blanket or a clapboard shutter.

The cabin usually had but one room, with perhaps a "lean-to"—an outer shed, for the hired help about the place. The room contained beds, a table, "stick chairs," and some three-legged stools, and perhaps the old spinning wheel and a trundle-bed for the children. The big open fireplace occupied almost all of one side of the room, leading out to the chimney made of sticks daubed with clay. Over the mantel were the rifles and the powder horns, and on the walls hung the coon-skins and other

hides, with the clothes hanging on the pegs. About the fireplace was the ironware—the kettle, the pot, the skillet, and the Dutch oven.

The door of the cabin was fastened by a heavy latch or bar of wood which could be lifted from without by a leather string which passed through a hole above in the door. At night, as a safeguard against dangerous prowlers, the latch-string would be pulled in, but when the "latch-string was out" the cabin home could be entered and visitors were welcome. The expression "the latch-string is out" has come down to us from log-cabin days as a sign of hospitality, and there were never more hospitable homes than these humble cabins in the forest.

Lincoln's Life in Indiana. It was in one of the poorest of these humble cabins that Abraham Lincoln grew up in Indiana. Thomas Lincoln, his father, had come from Kentucky and settled in Spencer County in 1816. The boy, Abe, was not yet eight years old. The Lincolns settled in an unbroken forest and to make a "clearing" was the first task before them after finding a temporary shelter. For the first winter the Lincolns lived in a "half-faced camp," a kind of rude shelter made of saplings or of poles stuck in the ground, with only the earth for a floor, and leaves and brush for a roof. Only three sides were enclosed, while the fourth side was left open to the weather. At this open side they built their fire to keep the enclosure warm and to keep the wolves away. The fire must not be allowed to go out, for they had no matches and it would be hard to strike fire again with flint and steel, or to go a half mile to the nearest neighbor to borrow some live coals.

For their second winter the Lincolns built a real log cabin, but of a poor kind, as it was without floor or window or door. There was a loft where the children slept, on a bed of leaves or on the skins of wild animals. While still a boy, Abraham wielded the axe, which he continued to wield till he was twenty-three. He helped clear the land, plowed, and harvested, and split rails, and tore out the stumps, or ran a ferryboat, and all this outdoor

exercise gave him a powerful physique. For the few months' schooling which he received he walked to a log schoolhouse four miles from his home. The schoolhouse had a puncheon floor, greased paper for window panes, and rude boards for seats. At night he read by the light of the fireplace such books as he could find and they were very few—the Bible, Aesop's Fables, and Weems' "Life of Washington." Such was the boyhood life of Abraham Lincoln in the backwoods of early Indiana.

Roads and Transportation. Civilized men cannot live without roads by which they can trade with one another. The settlers

UNITED STATES MAIL



FOUR-HORSE STAGE COACH

From an advertisement in the *Indiana Journal*, 1832.

could carry goods by flat-boats down the rivers, but they could not bring heavy goods to their country communities and inland towns by the river routes. Their most pressing business problem was to build roads and find easier means of communication, since they could not live entirely to themselves.

The Early Stage Lines. In 1820 there were but few miles of highway in the State. In that year stage coaches were put on the road from New Albany to Vincennes. In the summer of 1828 the first stages were started from Madison to Indianapolis, the lumbering coaches making the trip over the dirt roads *in four days*. In 1838 a line of stages was started between Logans

port and Indianapolis. By 1840 one could reach nearly all parts of the State by coach.

The National Road. When Indiana was admitted, the United States promised to give 5% of the proceeds from the sale of public lands to be used in road building. The National Road was laid out by the United States from Cumberland, Maryland, to St. Louis. The part of it in Indiana from Richmond to Terre Haute was surveyed in 1828 and was finished ten years later. For many years this was the finest road in the State.

Hauling Freight. Transporting freight was a hard problem. From 1820 to 1840 heavy goods were hauled from lake or river ports to the inland towns by means of horses, or more frequently by ox teams. For days and even for weeks the patient oxen, four or six yokes to the wagon, plodded their weary way through miles of forest where the sun hardly ever dried the muddy roads—from Madison to Indianapolis, from Chicago to La Fayette, from Toledo to Fort Wayne, from New Albany to Salem, Paoli, and Bloomington. The streams, as we have said, were the chief means of marketing Indiana produce. Every neighborhood had its "port," or "landing," where, during the summer, flat-boats were built, and in the early spring when the water was high, these were loaded with wheat, flour, chickens, pork, beef, venison, or other produce and floated down to New Orleans.

Up-stream navigation with flatboats was impossible. The flat-boat men would sell their vessels at New Orleans and take a steamboat back, or sometimes they would "hike" back through the forest. At times they tried to "pole their boats" up-stream, and when this failed the up-river towns sought to get small steamboats that could reach their "ports." In the decade from 1825 to 1835 little steamers visited Indianapolis, Lafayette, Logansport, and South Bend. But low water came, there were snags and sand-bars in the river bed, and the uncertainties of the trip were so great this method had to be given up. In 1819 the General Assembly sought to provide a system of opening up the larger streams to navigation. Low bridges and mill dams were

forbidden, and the men of the neighborhood were required to turn out and clear the streams of stones, logs, and driftwood, somewhat like "working the roads" in later days. When a new town was being laid out the agent for selling lots would usually advertise that the stream on which the town was located was "navigable." Salt Creek in Monroe County was so advertised, and White River to sixteen miles above Muncie.

The Wabash and Erie Canal. The people of Indiana were in favor of "internal improvements" by the National Government. As early as 1824 the State began to petition Congress for a land grant to aid in building a system of roads and canals. In 1827 Congress passed an act granting a strip of land over two sections wide on either side of a canal to be built from the navigable waters of the Maumee to the navigable waters of the Wabash. In 1828 the Indiana Legislature accepted the gift and began digging the canal. This was the Wabash and Erie canal.

When this was done a clamor arose for roads and canals in other parts of the State. The agitation was kept up till 1836, when a great system of roads, railroads, and canals was agreed upon,—a system that would cost over \$13,000,000. Railroads, turnpikes, and canals were to connect the chief centres of the State. The people were wild with delight at the prospect. Commissioners went East to borrow money on the credit of the State, and hundreds of workmen were set to work digging the canals and building the roads. For three years the busy work went on, but the woeful panic of 1837 caused a crash in all such enterprises, and after spending \$14,000,000, the State found itself bankrupt with none of its roads and canals finished.¹ The problem of transportation remained unsolved until the railroads came, chiefly in the decade between 1850 and 1860. The first railroad in the State, from Madison to Columbus and Indianapolis, was opened in 1847.

¹ For a time Indiana was on the verge of repudiating its debts but the honor and good name of the State were saved by the honest citizenship of the time, poor as the people were.

Banks and Money. The early settlers did not have much money. They got their living directly from the land. The local trade was mostly by barter. The shoemaker would sell his shoes for butter and eggs and bacon, and the storekeeper would sell his sugar and coffee and "store tea" (not sassafras) and calico and other "store goods" and take his pay in produce, including "sang"¹ and wood-chopping, which were common articles of merchandise.² If a man wanted some gold or silver money, he would have to sell a horse or a cow or ship his heavy produce down the river. The people were in need of good banks. Some merchants issued paper money on their own credit, which circulated in their neighborhood, but, of course, it would not circulate in the East, nor could it be accepted at the Government Land offices in payment for land.

The State Bank. To remedy this evil, a State Bank was established in 1834, with headquarters in Indianapolis and branches in a number of towns throughout the State. Its capital stock was \$2,500,000, of which the State owned half. Samuel Merrill was for many years the President of this bank. It was well managed and furnished the State a good sound currency. During its life of twenty-five years it earned for the State about \$3,750,000, a large part of which was turned over to the present common school fund of Indiana.

Beginnings of Higher Education: the Indiana Seminary. But the people of Indiana were not thinking merely of lands and roads and banks and material things. They were interested in things of the spirit—in education and religion.

Near the edge of the "New Purchase" at the new town of Bloomington (laid out in 1818) there was established in 1820 by Act of the State Legislature the "Indiana Seminary." This was the beginning of Indiana University. In 1828 the "Indiana Seminary" was changed by the Legislature to "Indiana College" and Dr. Andrew Wylie was called from Washington and Jefferson

¹ Ging-seng, which was dug and shipped in quantities.

² The axe and the rifle were the implements of civilization.

College in Pennsylvania to be the first President. In 1838 the legal title of this institution was changed from Indiana College to "Indiana University."

In thus fostering higher education Indiana was acting in harmony with the principle on which the State was founded. The Ordinance of 1787 suggested it. In 1806 the Territorial Legislature established Vincennes University and Congress



INDIANA COLLEGE, 1836

donated a township of land located in Gibson County for its benefit. In the "enabling act" of 1816 Congress offered, and the State accepted, another township of land for the benefit of a State Seminary.¹ The State in 1816 expressed in its first constitution the conviction that "knowledge and learning are essential to the preservation of free government" and that "the advantage of education should be extended throughout the country"; the first fundamental law of the State followed with these memorable words: "It shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by

¹ This was located by President Monroe just south of Bloomington.

law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a State University, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all." This has been the spirit of the State from its beginning. Its schools and universities have been a credit to its history and are now among the best in the United States. Purdue University and the State Normal School, both models of their kind, were established at later dates.

Church Colleges. Not only the State, but the churches were interested in promoting learning.

The Presbyterians, who always insisted upon an educated ministry, founded Hanover College in a little log cabin on the Ohio in 1827, and in 1833 Professor Caleb Mills opened Wabash College at Crawfordsville under Presbyterian control, with twelve students in attendance. Mills gave the rest of his life to education in Indiana and exerted great influence in promoting the cause of common school education. In 1840 the Methodists, destined to become the strongest Protestant denomination in the State, opened Asbury University (now De Pauw) at Greencastle.¹ Bishop Simpson, one of the greatest pulpit orators of his day and a man of national influence, became the first President of this institution. Bishop Simpson exerted a wide religious and educational influence in Indiana. Other noted Methodist Bishops have served as Presidents of De Pauw—including Bishop Bowman, Bishop Hughes, and Bishop McConnell.

In 1834 the Baptists established Franklin College. In 1842 the Roman Catholics opened the college of Notre Dame, near South Bend. In 1847 the Society of Friends, or "Quakers," always devoted friends of philanthropy and reform, founded Earlham College at Richmond. Butler College at Irvington, now a suburb of Indianapolis, was founded by the Church of the Disciples, or Christians, in 1850, under the name of "Northwestern Christian University." These worthy church colleges have rendered great services to the State. Thousands of devoted

¹ Asbury was chartered and its corner-stone was laid in 1837.

men and women of Indiana made great sacrifices to establish them and their graduates have taken important places in leadership and usefulness, not only in Indiana, but in other parts of our country.

The Common Schools. The log schoolhouses were poor and the teachers were poor, many of them ignorant and unfit to teach. The district school rarely lasted more than eight or ten weeks in the year. While there were some good academies and seminaries in the State, most of the County seminaries were in a wretched condition and were poorly attended. The schools were not free; most of them were subscription schools and the people felt too poor to send their children. It seemed that Indiana was becoming one of the most illiterate States in the Union, and the term "Hoosier" had become a reproach, as indicating a coarse and boorish people.

But there were scattered through the State many devoted and intelligent teachers, like Edward Eggleston the "Hoosier Schoolmaster," and Miss Dumont, at Vevay, a teacher of Eggleston's. The Mays at Salem, the Owens at New Harmony, the Wylies at Bloomington, the Merrills, the Nicholsons, the Merediths, and Blakes, and Julians in other parts of the State, and many others were constantly urging the cause of better schools. The colleges were like centres of light in the darkness. Professor Read and Professor Morrison of the State University and Caleb Mills at Wabash College and President Simpson and Professor Larrabee at Asbury, were giving public addresses and arousing public sentiment. Professor Mills's famous "Letters from one of the People," advocating a free school system, attracted the attention of Governor Whitcomb and the Legislature. It was largely the desire to bring about a better common school system that a new constitutional convention was called in 1850.

A New Constitution, 1850-51. The State had outgrown its first constitution, and so delegates to a constitutional convention were elected at the regular State election in August, 1850. The convention met in October, 1850, and completed its labors

in February, 1851, the new constitution being adopted by the people in the election in August, 1851. Governor Joseph A. Wright was the first Governor under the new constitution.

In this convention the cause of free schools was ably cared for. Professor Daniel Read of the Indiana University was a delegate, and he had been for years a warm friend and strong advocate of common schools. Mr. John I. Morrison, the Principal of a Girls' School at Salem and one of the ablest teachers of the State, was a delegate, and he was made chairman of the Committee on Education. Morrison reported the article of the new constitution relating to education. He was the author of the section creating the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The new constitution made it the solemn duty of the Legislature "to provide by law for a common school system of education wherein tuition shall be without charge and equally open to all." This was followed by a sure and generous provision for a common school fund, in order that the terms might be longer and the teachers be better paid.¹ Under these provisions the great system of free public education in Indiana has grown up, and in the sixty years that have followed, the name of "Hoosier," far from being a reproach, has become a decoration of honor. The schools of Indiana have set the State upon a pedestal of distinction.

Early Social Customs. There was much toil and drudgery and hardship in the life of the frontier settlers. But with all that, they had their meetings, their amusements, and their frolics. The religious camp meetings and revivals attracted the people for miles around. The people would leave their homes and towns for a camp, or tabernacle, in the woods for ten days or two weeks at a time, to give themselves up to religious devotion and excitement. These meetings were serious, but they afforded a rest from toil. The log-rollings and barn-raising brought hard

¹In the early land grants to the State the Federal Government had stipulated that the 16th section in every congressional township should be reserved for schools. This was the early basis of the present school fund.

work, but they were made the occasions of visiting and good times. The sugar camps, "husking bees," and spelling matches, the quilting parties, the rifle-matches, the pigeon shooting, the stump speeches, political rallies, and barbecues, the school exhibitions, and "shivarees," in all these ways, the people found hearty and healthful amusements.

The County Muster. The early "muster" also afforded a gala time. This was the meeting at the county seat of the county militia. Once a year, usually just after harvest, the "muster" was held. All persons subject to military duty between the years of 18 and 45 were required to attend to be drilled in the manual of arms. The militiamen were not uniformed, but came in varied clothing, carrying all kinds of weapons, long-barreled rifles, shotguns, carbines, and hunting-guns; and when some of the men had no guns at all, they were put through the drill *carrying corn stalks*. The muster often presented an awkward squad and the drilling company was sometimes laughed at by the bystanders and was called "the corn-stalk militia."

Political rallies were attended by thousands of people. To the great Whig rally at the Tippecanoe battle-ground in 1840 people came from all parts of the Northwest. They came by land and water in every kind of conveyance—in wagons, in huge log cabins mounted on wheels, with gourds and coon-skins hanging on the sides, in long canoes painted and decorated with party emblems. It was estimated that 20,000 people were there. The woods were filled with wagons, flags, banners, and streamers, all like a military encampment. In the "barbecue" to feed the multitude there were roasts of whole carcasses,—shoats, sheep, and oxen, dressed and spitted over a long trench by the heat of well-tended fires. The carvers with their long, sharp knives served the meat. In the rear was a smaller trench where the "burgoo" was served, a soup rich and well seasoned, all without money and without price. There were always hot political disputes and some fist fights on such occasions, though usually the crowd was orderly and good-natured.

In these forty years the life of the people was constantly becoming more settled and cultivated. The farms were improving, the towns were growing, railroads were extending, commerce was increasing, wealth was accumulating, homes were being made better, and Indiana was fast becoming one of the leading States of the Union. The State had borne its fair share in the Mexican war. It had almost always been Democratic in politics and had not been greatly moved by the Anti-slavery agitation. The abolitionists were disliked, and the people did not wish the free negro to come among them. But the great majority of Indiana people were opposed to the extension of slavery and in 1860 the voters by a majority over all other candidates voted for Abraham Lincoln for President. The State was ready to play a valiant part in the great war for the preservation of the Union.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Indicate the wonderful growth of Indiana from 1820 to 1860. How did the settlers come? How did they get land? Describe the Log Cabin pioneer conditions.
2. Give an account of Lincoln's life in Indiana.
3. Describe the early roads, canals and means of transportation.
4. Tell about early education in the state. Early social customs.
5. What Church colleges are in Indiana? When established?
6. What influences promoted free common schools? What is the source of our common school fund?

INDIANA IN THE CIVIL WAR

When the Civil War came on the great majority of the people of Indiana were determined that the Union should be saved. They did not know, however, the best way by which to accomplish their purpose.

Oliver P. Morton, "The War Governor." In the midst of the confusion and the excitement a great leader appeared to point the way. This man was Oliver P. Morton, the "war Governor" of Indiana. Morton knew no such word as fail.

When opposed by a legislature which refused appropriations, he borrowed money on his own responsibility, maintained the credit of the State and kept the Indiana soldiers in the field. Morton was the strong man of Indiana in the early sixties and later became one of the stalwart figures of the nation. No other leader in the Civil War gave President Lincoln and the national government a more valiant or effective support than did Morton of Indiana.

Morton's Vigorous Actions. Governor Morton was a man of executive action. On the morning after the fall of Fort Sumter, April 15, 1861, and before Lincoln's call for volunteers had been received, Governor Morton sent the following telegram to President Lincoln at Washington. "On behalf of the State of Indiana, I tender you for the defense of the nation, and to uphold the authority of the government, ten thousand men." On the same day came Lincoln's call for 75,000 volunteers, and Governor Morton set about vigorously to redeem his promise.

The Call to the Colors. Governor Morton at once issued a call for volunteers and the whole state was in a fever of excitement. Public meetings were held, speeches were made, recruiting stations were opened, and the stirring music of the fife and drum were to be heard on every hand. Party lines seemed to be forgotten for the time and the people thought only of one thing—the saving of the Union. There were in Indiana many who were opposed to the coercing of the southern states, but in this wave of popular feeling they were compelled to keep silent.

Indiana's quota of the 75,000 men which were called for was 4683, but more than 12,000 men enlisted in ten days and reported at Indianapolis for service. As a matter of fact Indiana offered more than the national government was ready to accept. They were quartered on the land which was later used as a state fair grounds, and "Camp Morton" became a very busy scene.

In the course of the Civil War, Indiana troops, 250,000 in number, fought in every State touched by the conflict—seventeen States and Territories—and took part in more than three

hundred battles. Indiana regiments were everywhere where fighting was going on—at Shiloh, Vicksburg, Stone River, Chickamauga, Mission Ridge, and Atlanta.

Morton, "The Soldier's Friend." In addition to sending the men into the field, Governor Morton saw to it that they were well cared for. Because of his tireless efforts in this respect he soon became widely known as "The Soldier's Friend." His heart was in his work. He called a special session of the Legislature, which assembled ten days after the fall of Fort Sumter, and delivered a ringing message to that body on the opening day. "Without distinction of party, condition, or occupation," he said, "men have rallied around the nation's standard, and in every part of the State may be heard the sound of martial music and witnessed the mustering of companies into the field."

His call for money met with a ready response. The Legislature voted two million dollars to equip and arm the men, and the Governor worked without ceasing to fit them for service. He also worked literally night and day to see that the Indiana men in the field had the comforts as well as the necessities of life. Working through the Sanitary Commission, he sent them warm clothing and hospital supplies, as well as provisions and delicacies. He also sent nurses and surgeons to the front to care for the Indiana men and forwarded 30,000 overcoats when the Government did not act promptly enough to suit him. To Governor Morton's mind there was nothing too good for the soldier boy in the field.

Morgan's Raid: "The Battle of Corydon." The greatest war excitement in Indiana occurred in July, 1863. General John Morgan, the famous "rebel raider," crossed the Ohio River near Manckport and marched north with about 4000 troops. Some of the Harrison county militia or "Home Guards," resisted his advance and there was a little skirmish about a mile from Corydon in which a few men were killed and wounded. Morgan marched into Corydon, then north to Salem and turned east toward Vernon. The whole State was aroused and thousands

of the militia were ready to turn out and fight Morgan's men, but he hurried out of the State so fast that he could not be caught. His force was captured or dispersed in Ohio. Morgan plundered some stores, burnt some bridges, and took several hundred horses, but he did not find the sympathy with the Confederacy which he had been led to expect. The people of Indiana were true to the Union and Morgan's raid made them more loyal than ever.

Indiana Officers. The State of Indiana furnished its share of officers as well as enlisted men. General Ambros E. Burnside, who succeeded McClellan as commander of the Army of the Potomac, was born in Union County. General Lew Wallace, of Shiloh fame, and the celebrated author of "Ben Hur," was for many years a resident of Crawfordsville. His statue now stands by the side of that of Oliver P. Morton in Statuary Hall in the National Capitol. Congress has voted that each State may erect the statues of two of its leading citizens, but not more, in Statuary Hall. The patriotism and the genius of Indiana are well represented in Morton and Wallace. Brigadier-General Benjamin Harrison reflected great credit upon his State in the field, the Senate, and later in the Presidential office. Major-General Alvin P. Hovey fought the battles of the Union and later served as Governor of Indiana from 1889 to 1891. Major-General Walter Q. Gresham, after an honorable career on the field, became famous as a lawyer and was a Cabinet member under Presidents Arthur and Cleveland. Brigadier-General P. A. Hackleman, a brilliant soldier and efficient officer, killed October 2, 1862, was enlisted from Rush County. Major-General Robert H. Milroy, "the Gray Eagle of the Army," fought gallantly in West Virginia, and Major-General Joseph J. Reynolds was with Thomas when the latter stood "like a rock" at Chickamauga.

Indiana in National Politics. Following the war, and on account of her record, Indiana became prominent in national politics. It was a close State politically and was the scene of hard fought battles between Republicans and Democrats.

Schuyler Colfax, of South Bend (Republican), was Speaker of the National House of Representatives for several terms during and following the war. Michael C. Kerr, of New Albany (Democrat), was another speaker (1874-75). Colfax was elected Vice President with Grant in 1868. Thomas A. Hendricks (Democrat), was elected Governor in 1872, and Vice President with Cleveland in 1884. Charles W. Fairbanks (Republican), was made Vice President with Roosevelt in 1904 and Thomas R. Marshall (Democrat), after serving as Governor, became Vice President with President Wilson in 1913. Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, was elected President in 1888 and many old men who had voted for his grandfather in 1840, in the famous campaign of "Tippecanoe and Tyler Too" rallied to his support.

The State's Gratitude.

Governor Morton extended his fatherly care over the Indiana soldiers while in the field, and the State of Indiana has since the war tenderly cared for the veterans and their families. A splendid institution, known as the State Soldiers' Home, has been established a few miles from Lafayette and in this more than 1000 people—



SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' MONUMENT AT INDIANAPOLIS

The state of Indiana built this monument in memory of the Indiana men who fought in the army and navy in the wars of the nation, from the Revolutionary and Indian wars to the War for the Union. The monument was built in ten years, being completed in 1897. Its entire height is 284 feet and 6 inches above the level of the street, and the shaft is surmounted by a bronze statue of "Victory," which is 38 feet high. Its foundation covers 3657 square feet, and is 30 feet deep. Two stone groups of statuary represent "Peace" and "War," and the bronze ornaments on the shaft symbolize the Army and the Navy. The inscription on the monument is: "To Indiana's Silent Victors."

veterans and their wives—find solace and comfort in their declining years. The Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, at Knightstown, was established to shelter the children of the men who exposed their lives on the firing line.

Now that the war is over the bitterness of the old days has passed away. This fact is beautifully expressed in the inscription upon the stone which Indiana contributed to the monument erected at Washington, D. C., in honor of George Washington. This inscription reads as follows: "Indiana knows no North, no South, Nothing but the Union."

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Tell about Indiana's part in the Civil War.
2. Describe Gov. Morton's services as a "War Governor."
3. Describe John Morgan's Raid in Indiana.
4. Describe some of the distinguished men from Indiana in national politics.

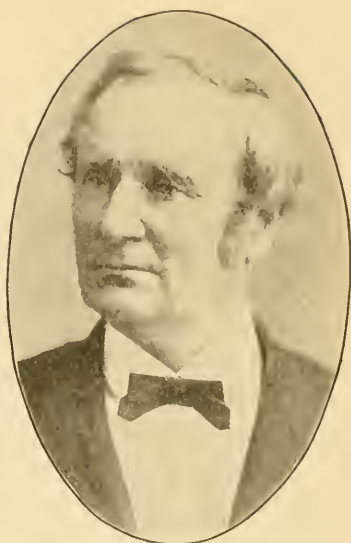
INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL PROGRESS SINCE THE CIVIL WAR

The State of Indiana has enjoyed its full share of that remarkable industrial and social progress which the United States has experienced since the Civil War.

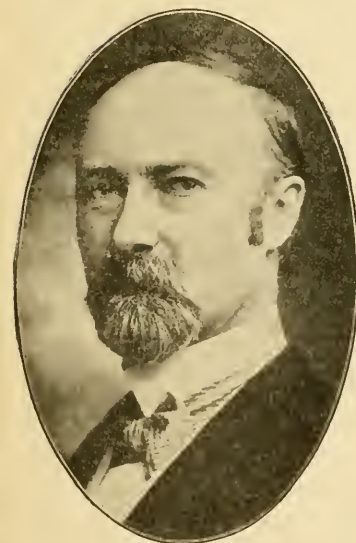
The Effect of the Civil War. The Civil War had a marked effect upon the development of agriculture in the United States. It caused a great demand for agricultural products, and prices consequently rose. This stimulated production and brought about the use of labor-saving machinery on a large scale. Evidence of this fact may be seen in the production of wheat in Indiana. In 1859, the State produced fifteen million bushels. In 1863, with a large part of its men in the army, the production was twenty million bushels. It is estimated that at the close of the war there were 250,000 reapers in use in the United States, each one of which could cut ten acres of grain in a day. These reapers helped the North to win the Civil War, as they provided bread for the people while the men fought the battles.



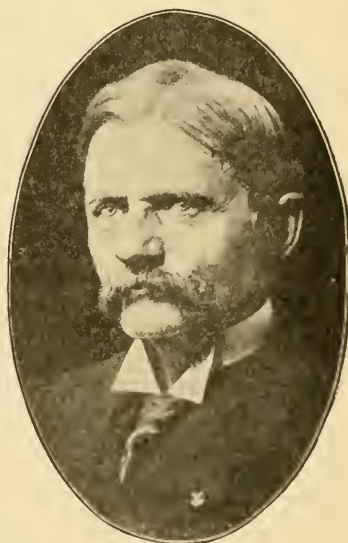
Schuyler Colfax



Thomas A. Hendricks



Charles W. Fairbanks



Thomas R. Marshall

INDIANA'S FOUR VICE PRESIDENTS

General Progress. The population of Indiana, according to the census of 1910, was 2,700,876. The population of the State increased 7.3% between 1900 and 1910. The increase in the cities was marked, while in some of the rural districts of the State the population decreased. As in other States, there has been in Indiana a marked tendency for the population to drift to the cities. 42½% of the people of Indiana now live in cities of 2500 or more as against 34% in 1900.

The area of the State is 36,354 square miles. More than 92% of the land area is made up of farms. The value of farm property increased about 85% between 1900 and 1910. The total value of farm property in Indiana in 1910 was \$1,809,135,000, and the total value of farm crops in the same year was \$204,210,000.

Manufactures. In point of area Indiana is the thirty-seventh State in the Union. From the standpoint of manufacturing Indiana ranks ninth. According to the United States census of 1910, the total value of the manufactured products in Indiana for a single year amounted to \$579,075,000. Great towns like Gary have grown up on the Lake. The Oliver plows and the Studebaker wagons are known throughout the world.

Mining. Mining is also an important industry in Indiana. The mines, quarries, and oil wells of the state produced in 1909 a gross value of \$21,934,201. The value of the output in the coal fields was \$15,000,000. The limestone quarries produced three and a half million dollars and the oil and gas wells more than three million dollars. The coal of Indiana is used wherever manufacturing is done, and the Bedford building stone has been used in all important cities of the United States.

Transportation—Railroads and Canals. The development of transportation facilities must of necessity go hand in hand with the development of agriculture and manufactures. Transportation facilities in Indiana in the early days were not good. The rivers and rude roads cut through the forests were the highways over which the pioneer had to travel. The development from these humble beginnings has been remarkable. The State now

has about 7,500 miles of railroad connecting it with all parts of the United States. In addition to this there are now more than 2000 miles of electric lines in the State. In fact, Indiana is the center of the interurban business of the United States. These electric lines are having an important effect upon the economic and social development of the State. They have increased the amount of travel and are helping to break the monotony of rural life. In fact, the monotony of rural life is now in most parts of the State a thing of the past. The trolley car makes it possible for boys and girls from the farm to attend the city high school and it has also brought the lectures and concerts of the county seat within easy reach of people many miles away. Farm horses also have been relieved of many of their burdens. Instead of driving his team to town in stormy weather and over bad roads, the farmer now takes the trolley car, which runs past his door. He also sends a part of his produce to town in the same way.

Charities and Corrections. The State of Indiana has been far-sighted and liberal in its charitable and correctional work. A long time ago, when it was not fashionable or customary to say such things, the Indiana State constitution said that the punishment of offenders against the law should be based upon the idea of "reformation" and not upon that of "vindictive justice." With this humane and sensible view constantly in mind, the State has passed wise laws for the care of its dependent and criminal cases. There are now five well-managed hospitals for the insane—at Indianapolis, Richmond, Logansport, Evansville and Madison. At these places patients receive expert treatment and a large percentage of them are cured or very greatly improved. Provision has also been made for the education of the dumb, deaf, and blind. The reformatory at Jeffersonville, receives the younger offenders and the State prison at Michigan City exists for those who are more hardened in criminal ways. The Indiana Boys' School at Plainfield trains and educates wayward youth and attempts to make them good citizens. In

addition to those mentioned there are several other State institutions, all under the general supervision of the Board of State Charities. This Board issues an annual report which contains a vast amount of information, useful to Indiana citizens. The State Board of Health under the leadership of Dr. J. N. Hurty has done much to safeguard the life and health of the people.

Literary Progress. Indiana's position in the literary world has been a matter of favorable comment for many years. Mention can be made of some of these. General Lew Wallace's



Lew Wallace

James Whitcomb Riley

Edward Eggleston

THREE FAMOUS INDIANA AUTHORS

"Ben Hur" has been read in all quarters of the globe and in almost every important language. Edward Eggleston is famous for his "Hoosier Schoolmaster," and "Hoosier School Boy," as well as for his excellent historical writings. His brother, George Cary Eggleston, wrote "The First of the Hoosiers," and about thirty other books, and was also a successful editor. Joaquin Miller, "The Poet of the Sierras," was an Indiana man and so was David Graham Phillips, author of "The Deluge." Thousands of people have read with delight Maurice Thompson's "Alice of Old Vincennes." Charles Major's "When Knighthood was in Flower" has been read by tens of thousands of people

and so have the fascinating stories of Booth Tarkington and George Barr McCutcheon. Annie Fellows Johnston and Evalene Stein have delighted the children of this generation with their charming stories, and the novels of Meredith Nicholson are read wherever good fiction is in demand. George Ade, humorist and playwright, and John McCutcheon, cartoonist and author, are men of international reputation, and deservedly so, in their respective lines of work. Other Indiana writers of note are James Baldwin, William Dudley Foulke, Jacob P. Dunn, Daniel Wait Howe, Charles R. Williams, William Vaughn Moody, Charles W. Moores, and Gene Stratton Porter. And now last, but by no means least, mention should be made of James Whitcomb Riley, Indiana's foremost man of letters, whose poems are familiar to every school boy and girl in the State. On October 7, 1915, hundreds of men from all parts of the United States assembled at Indianapolis to celebrate the birthday anniversary of Indiana's much beloved poet.

Progress in Education. In no field of human life has the progress of Indiana been more marked during the last half century than in the field of education. From an illiterate condition Indiana has risen to be one of the foremost States of the Union. The common schools in the country districts have been greatly improved and their teachers are better educated. Every city and town of any size has a system of graded schools and a well-equipped high school which can prepare their pupils for college or give them practical manual training for some trade or vocation which will help them to succeed in life. Township high schools are established in the country, so that a high school is within reach of almost every child in the state. Most of the high school teachers are now college graduates and most of the country teachers are high school graduates. Above the high schools are the colleges and universities—Indiana University at Bloomington, with its College of Liberal Arts and its professional schools of Education, Law, and Medicine; Purdue University with its schools of Agriculture and Engineering; the State Normal School for the special

training of teachers.¹ The church colleges have constantly grown stronger and between them and the state schools there is a spirit of cooperation and harmony. Private normal schools, like the famous one at Valparaiso, has sent out hundreds of trained citizens for service in the state.

All these educational forces of the state are well organized and directed. At the head of the system stands the State Board of Education, of thirteen members. Six of these are appointed by the Governor, and among these are representatives of the church colleges, of the common schools, and of the labor and industrial life of the state. The seven other members consist of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is the President of the Board and who is elected by the voters of the State; the President of the three State higher educational institutions; and the Superintendents of schools in the three largest cities of the State, now Indianapolis, Evansville, and Fort Wayne. This Board affords educational leadership under whose direction, together with the State Teachers' Associations, all the educational forces of the State may be marshaled for improvement and progress. Every child of school age is required to go to school, and in 1913 the State legislature provided by law for Vocational Education that the children of Indiana, most of whom cannot go to college, may have not only such common school and high school education as will fit them for good citizenship, but also may receive such special training in trades and vocations as will better fit them for earning their living.

Indiana is now (1916) celebrating the centennial of her birth as a State. Her children may have a feeling of pride in being known as "Hoosiers." They may rejoice in the noble record of the brave pioneer fathers and mothers who helped to build the State. They may be well be proud of the State's prosperity and achievements. The State deserves honor for what it has done in literature, for the relief of the unfortunate, and for its work

¹ Purdue and the State Normal School were founded following an act of the State legislature of 1865.

in the betterment of human society. But there is special reason for honor and pride in the record of the State in education and because of the advanced position that Indiana has attained among the States of the Union in this respect.

GOVERNMENT

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

The State Constitution. Indiana, like all the States, has a written constitution. This constitution is the law that describes the form of government for the State and the principles on which the people wish the government conducted. The constitution is made, or adopted, by the people themselves. It is the supreme law of the State—higher than the statute law which the Legislature makes, and it cannot be changed except by a vote of the people. It contains a Bill of Rights, reasserting the principles of the Declaration of Independence, affirming that “the people have at all times an indefeasible right to alter and reform their government”; securing the right of the people to freedom of worship, freedom of opinion, freedom of speech; to “justice freely without purchase, and speedily without delay,” and, when accused of crime, to fair trials in open court. The Legislature and the courts may not legally abridge or deny these rights of the people.

Form of Government. The Constitution of the State, like that of the United States, divides its government into three branches: 1. Legislative; 2. Executive; 3. Judicial.

The LEGISLATURE is the law-making body. Like that of all the States, it consists of two houses, the upper house, or the Senate, and the lower house, or the House of Representatives. Both houses together are called the Legislature, or the General Assembly. Every act or bill must pass both houses and be approved by the Governor, or be passed over his veto, before it can become a law. Two thirds of each house constitutes a

quorum to do business, but a majority of all the members elected to each house is required in a vote for a measure before it can become a law. Thus there are "checks and balances" as a precaution against unwise legislation.

Membership and Officers of the Legislature. The Senate consists of fifty members, the House of one hundred, and this membership cannot be increased under the present constitution. Senators and Representatives are elected from the counties and senatorial districts by the qualified voters, the Representatives for two years, the Senators for four. Half of the Senators go out of office every two years. The other half are "hold-overs," and they assure to each session of the Legislature some experienced members. The Senators are required to be at least twenty-five years of age, the Representatives twenty-one. The Legislature meets once in two years for a session of sixty-one days, beginning on the Thursday following the first Monday in January. Special sessions may be called by the Governor.

The Lieutenant-Governor becomes Governor in case of a vacancy. He presides over the Senate, while the House elects a Speaker as its presiding officer. Both houses have clerks, doorkeepers, etc., and each house keeps a Journal of its proceedings, so that anyone may know what goes on in the open sessions. What happens in the committees and caucuses is not so easily found out.

Public Opinion. The legislators are elected to represent the people and to look out for the people's interests. If the people wish to get good laws and to have the State well governed, they must let their representatives know what they want done. Public opinion is all-powerful, and legislators and politicians will be controlled by it when it makes itself known. The people speak through newspapers, public meetings, petitions, and personal letters. The law-makers are anxious to meet with the approval of the people, and they will follow public opinion when it is expressed in unmistakable terms. Electing legislators is not enough; they must be informed as to what the people think on public

questions, and, most important of all, the people should see to it that the right kind of men are sent to the Legislature. Good laws will not come from bad men any more than grapes will come from thorns or figs from thistles.

The Executive Department: the Governor. The chief executive officer of the State is the Governor. It is his duty, where he has the power, to see that the laws of the State are faithfully executed. He is elected by the people for a term of four years, but he may not be elected again until he has been out of the office for at least four years. The Governor must not be less than thirty years of age, and he must have been for five years a citizen of the United States, and a resident of the State for five years preceding his election.

The Governor's Powers. By his message to the Legislature the Governor may enlighten public opinion and influence legislation. The Governor may veto bills, that is, proposed laws, but any of them may be passed over his veto by a bare majority of the members elected to each house. He has the power to pardon criminals, though he generally acts upon the advice of a Board of Pardons appointed to investigate such cases. He has the power of appointment to many boards and commissions, like the boards of trustees for certain State institutions, the Public Utilities Commission, the Tax Commission, and other bodies. He is generally a leader with large influence in his party and in the State, and in many ways, especially in times of war, disorder, or public peril, he is the most important personage in the State.

The Governor is the Commander-in-chief of the military forces of the State, and he may call out such forces to enforce the laws, to suppress insurrection, or to repel invasion.

Other State Officers. There are other important executive or administrative officers of the State.

The Secretary of State keeps the official records, transcribes the laws of the State, and attaches the State seal to important documents. He sees that the laws are correctly printed and preserved.

The Auditor of State is the bookkeeper. He keeps an account of all money received and paid out, and none can be paid out without his order. He has supervision of State banks and all insurance companies doing business in the State. His office is vitally important, as he may protect the people against

fraud by requiring proper public reports from companies and corporations, and by seeing that they do not evade the law and impose upon the people.

The Treasurer of State has charge of the State funds. He may not receive or pay out money except on the warrant of the Auditor. He must pledge himself by a bond that he will honestly handle the funds and faithfully perform the duties of his office.



GREAT SEAL OF THE STATE OF INDIANA

The Attorney-General is the lawyer for the State. He represents the State in the Supreme Court and other courts, prosecutes offenders against the State as well as claims and cases for the State. He gives legal advice to the Governor and other State officers.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction oversees the educational interests of the State. He collects information concerning the schools, helps to direct and lead in teachers' conventions and institutes, and represents the educational interests of the State before the people and General Assembly. He is President of the State Board of Education, and being at the head of the school forces of the State, he performs duties touching the most important interests of the people.

The State Geologist studies and reports upon the minerals of the State, its mines, rocks, soils, and other natural resources.

The State Statistician collects and publishes statistics relating to the general activities of the State, its agriculture, commerce, manufacturing, and other lines.

The Judicial Department. This consists of the various State and local courts, whose duty it is to administer justice between man and man, and to impose penalties for violation of the law. It is the place of the judges, or the courts, to explain the meaning of the laws and to apply them to cases that arise. Justices of the Peace do this for the local communities, trying petty offenses against the law, like quarreling or disturbing the peace, and settling small disputes over property, such as the ownership of a pig, or the location of a line fence. Police Courts in the cities try offenders against good order, the gamblers, the crap-shooters, the drunkards, the saloon-keepers who violate the liquor laws, and others who transgress the State laws and the city ordinances.

The District Courts, or Circuit Courts, are next in order. These names are explained by the fact that the State is divided into judicial districts for the trial of cases, and in earlier times a district consisted of several counties, and the judge went upon his circuit holding court first in one county, then in another. It is before these courts that the majority of cases are tried, for murder, burglary, divorce, and important disputes over property.

Appeals may be taken in all important cases from the lower courts to the higher, from the Justices of the Peace to the Circuit Courts, and from the Circuit Courts to the Supreme Court. Cases of a certain grade cannot go farther than the Appellate Court, which is a court midway between the Circuit Court and the Supreme Court. The Appellate Court was created by the Legislature of 1891 to relieve the Supreme Court of certain cases brought up on appeal. Final decision is made by the Appellate Court in certain cases not involving large sums of money. Criminal cases in which a man's right to life and liberty is involved may always be carried to the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court consists of five judges, elected by the people for a term of six years. The justices are of equal rank,

but one of their number, usually the oldest, is elected to preside and is called the Chief Justice. Most of the work of this court is appellate, that is, it consists of reviewing cases that are appealed from the lower courts. If one side in a case is dissatisfied with the decision in a Circuit Court it may, under certain conditions, appeal the case to the Supreme Court, and this Court gives the final decision in the case. The decisions of the Supreme Court in interpreting the law serve as precedents which help to make up the law of the State. No one knows precisely what the law is until the Supreme Court gives a decision touching the points in question. The decision of the Court is accepted as the law, until this decision is reversed by another decision of the Court. A lower court may declare an act of the Legislature unconstitutional and therefore null and void, and if that opinion is affirmed by the Supreme Court on appeal, the act is no longer binding.

Amending the Constitution. The way to amend the Constitution of Indiana is laid down in the Constitution itself. If one Legislature approves an amendment, it is passed and referred to the next Legislature, two years later. If that body approves, it is its duty to submit the amendment to the people of the State. If a majority of the voters of the State approve it at the polls it will then be declared a part of the Constitution. It is so difficult to get an amendment passed that a strong demand has arisen for a new constitution.

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. How many members are there in each house of the Legislature? How often does the Legislature meet? What is the length of the session? Why is it better to have two houses in a legislature?

2. Who is Governor of Indiana? What is the length of his term? What are the principal powers of the Governor? Name the other State officers; tell how they are chosen, the length of their terms, and their principal duties.

3. What is guaranteed in the "Bill of Rights"? What is an appellate court? How many members are on the Indiana Supreme Court? How are they chosen?

4. How is a new Constitution made? How is the Constitution amended?

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local Self-Government. The right of every community to govern itself within its own local limits has always been insisted upon by the American people. So the State makes laws under which the counties, cities, and townships govern themselves. The amount of local government enjoyed depends on the Legislature. Complaint is made that the cities are "in bondage to the legislature" and a strong sentiment exists for "home rule for cities," under which each city might adopt a charter for itself to control its own affairs entirely and raise its own taxes in its own way for local purposes.

The county is the legislative unit, since the counties elect members of the Legislature, and the county, city, and the township are the units for local government. Whether the people are badly governed; whether their taxes are too high, or whether their money is stolen by dishonest officials, whether the laws are enforced, or crime and disorder prevail, and life and property are unsafe—all these things depend very largely, not on the President or the Governor or a legislature far away, but upon the kind of local government the people set up for themselves in their own communities. What kind of citizens are there in the city and the township? On this will depend good government for the people, and finally, the kind of laws and government the State will have. So local government and local citizenship are extremely important. The State and the Nation depend upon the citizens at home. The citizens should therefore care diligently for their city, their township, and their county.

County Commissioners and Township Trustees. In the country districts the people are especially interested in the work of the County Commissioners and the Township Trustees.

The Township Trustee is the important officer of the township. He examines and settles accounts against the township. He may levy taxes and incur debts. He has charge of the finances of the township, its roads, its schools, its elections, and its relief for the poor. In all these important matters he is the responsible

business manager of the township. He appoints and pays the teachers, authorizes the building of schoolhouses, buys school supplies, and in the most important ways the people's interests are in his hands. It has been said that, so far as the personal interest of the people in the township is concerned, it is more important for them to see that they have a good Township Trustee than to see that they have a good President of the United States. The Township Trustee can affect their property interest and their immediate welfare far more than can the President.

County Commissioners. So far as the county makes laws, the Board of Commissioners is the county legislature. They manage the business of the county and are its most important administrative officers. Each county is divided into three districts, and there is a Commissioner for each district, though all three are elected by the whole county. The Commissioners authorize the construction of new roads, the erection of public buildings, and control the county property. They make contracts for the county and hear claims against it. They fix the county tax levy and make appropriations of money. They hear applications for liquor licenses, appoint health officers and food-inspectors and certain election officers. Their powers are so extensive and important that it may be said they govern the county, under the law of the State.

Other County Officers. The Sheriff is the chief executive officer of the county. It is his business to carry out the orders of the court, to preserve the peace, to arrest offenders, to summon jurymen, to have charge of the jail, and to keep the prisoners. He has authority to call to his aid (if necessary to enforce the law and to keep the peace) what is called the *posse comitatus*, that is, the power of the county, or the citizens of the community, the bystanders, whose duty it is to aid the Sheriff in making arrests or suppressing disorder. If this power is not sufficient, the Sheriff may call upon the Governor to furnish State troops. The Sheriff is elected for a term of two years and may serve but two terms in succession.

The County Auditor examines and settles accounts. He issues orders on the County Treasurer and acts as Secretary to the Board of Commissioners. He makes out a list, from the reports of the assessors, of all the taxable property of the county, and puts down the amount of tax which is charged to each person. In brief, the Auditor keeps the accounts of the county. He is elected for a term of four years, and he may serve only eight years in succession.

The County Treasurer collects the taxes and safeguards the money. He gives a receipt for all moneys paid in, and pays out money on the order of the Auditor. His term is two years, and he may serve only four years in succession.

The County Recorder registers the deeds, leases, mortgages, liens, assignments, and contracts that need to be made a matter of public record. He is elected for four years and may serve but eight years in succession.

The Coroner is elected for two years and may serve any number of terms. He becomes Sheriff in case of a vacancy. His chief duty is to hold an inquest or examination on the body of any one who may have come to his death by violence or accident, and he reports the circumstances of the case.

The County Surveyor is elected by the people, every two years, to provide for accurate surveys of land, and to have expert construction of roads and drains. Under his direction the maps, charts, and plans of the county and the townships are made and kept.

The County Superintendent is elected for a term of four years by the Township Trustees. He may be reelected for any number of terms. He supervises the schools of the county, except those in the cities, examines and licenses teachers, and he may revoke a license for good cause. He is required to visit the schools, arrange for teachers' institutes, and report school statistics to the State Superintendent, showing the number of children of school age and the state of the school fund in his county. He attends chiefly to the country schools.

EXERCISE ON COUNTY GOVERNMENT

How many counties are there in Indiana? How many townships in your county? What is the area of your county? Its population? Draw a map of the county, locating its villages and cities. What Board constitutes the legislature of the county? What officer is the chief executive officer? The chief judicial officer? How are the County Commissioners elected? What are their duties? Let the pupil ascertain the principal duties of the following county officers: Sheriff, Clerk, Auditor, Treasurer, Recorder, Surveyor, Coroner, School Superintendent.

CITY GOVERNMENT

Problems of the City. The government of our cities presents special difficulties. The rapid growth of cities has been one of the notable facts in our history. In 1790, at the first census, America had only six cities whose population was as much as 8,000 each. By the census of 1910 there were over 300 such cities. These cities contain nearly one half of the population of the United States. There are thirty-four such cities in Indiana. Many of the people in these cities are foreign-born, of many nationalities, crowded together in tenement houses, sometimes many thousands living within a few blocks. Under what conditions shall the people live and work? How can they be transported from their houses to their working places? How can schools, playgrounds, and parks be provided for them? How can their food and milk be kept from adulteration? How can they be protected from crime, and the poor and ignorant be saved from imposition? How can their homes be protected from fire, and their lives from contagious diseases? All these problems, and more, the city has to wrestle with.

Form and Scope of City Government. As in state and nation, so in the city there are three branches of government: legislative, executive, and judicial. The City Council is the city legislature. In order to see how complex and miscellaneous is the business of making laws for a city, and to realize how the interest and the freedom of the individual citizen must be subordinated to the welfare of the community where so many people are living

together, let us notice a number of the things which a city in Indiana is authorized to do:

The Council, together with the Mayor, has power to pass laws to govern the city; to assess taxes and regulate the city's finances; to order street improvements and to control the streets and alleys; to fix the salaries of the city officers; to protect the city property; to provide punishments for disorder; to provide for keeping the city clean and protecting its water supply from impurities; to regulate the location of bone factories, soap factories, and other factories that may be objectionable to a neighborhood; to declare what shall constitute a nuisance, and to prevent filthy and unhealthy conditions about any one's premises; to prevent the use of firearms and fireworks that might be dangerous to persons or property; to prevent the storage of gunpowder or inflammable oils that may be dangerous; to manage cemeteries; to quarantine persons and houses in order to prevent the spread of contagious diseases, to require records of births and deaths; to regulate or prohibit the ringing of bells, crying of goods, or sounding of steam-whistles; to regulate city markets, and to prevent the sale of unwholesome meats and vegetables; to define the fire limits and prevent the erection of frame buildings, or the deposit of hay, straw, lumber, or other combustible material within such limits; to regulate the erection of high chimneys and smokestacks; to require the inspection of gas-pipes, sewer-pipes, drainage, and electric wires; to require property owners to remove weeds and rank vegetation; to prevent reckless driving or riding in the streets; to license or suppress hawkers and peddlers; to regulate and tax hackmen, cabmen, billposters, etc., etc.

There are many other things for the Council to attend to. The whole work is divided into Departments, of Finance, Law, Public Works, Public Safety, Assessments, Public Health, and Charities, and boards are provided for to attend to these various activities, under appointment by Mayor or Council.

The Council is required to meet once a month, and the Mayor

may call special meetings. No city ordinance or law comes into force until signed by the Mayor, or is passed over his veto. It requires a two-thirds vote of all the councilmen to pass an ordinance over the Mayor's veto. It is the duty of the Mayor in the smaller cities to preside at all meetings of the Council, and he has a casting vote in case of a tie.

CLASSES OF CITIES

The cities of Indiana are divided into five classes:

1st. Those having a population of 100,000 or over. Indianapolis is the only one of this class.

2d. Cities with a population between 45,000 and 100,000. Evansville, Fort Wayne, Terre Haute, and South Bend are in this class.

3d. Cities with a population between 20,000 and 45,000. Muncie, Anderson, Richmond, Hammond, and Lafayette are in this class.

4th. Cities with a population between 10,000 and 20,000.

5th. Cities with a population less than 10,000.

City Officers. The city officers are a mayor, a judge, a clerk, a treasurer, and councilmen, except that in every city of the first three classes, if it is a county seat, the county treasurer performs the duties of the city treasurer, and in cities of the fifth class, the duties of the city judge are performed by the mayor. A councilman is elected for each ward, and for the city at large half as many more councilmen are elected as there are wards; but the councilmen at large may not be fewer than two, nor more than six in number. These officers are elected for four years in November of the years following the Presidential election. The City Clerk records the acts and laws of the Council. The pay of the Councilmen varies from \$50 to \$200 per year, according to the size of the city.

A City Attorney is elected to attend to the legal business of the city.

A School Board of three members is elected by the Council (in the smaller cities),¹ and these School Trustees elect the teachers and the Superintendent of the city schools.

¹ In some of the larger cities school trustees are elected by the people.

In cities of the fifth class the City Marshal, appointed by the Mayor, has charge of the police force, and a Chief of the Fire Force, appointed by the Mayor, has charge of the Fire Department. A Street Commissioner is also appointed by the Mayor to care for the streets and crossings.

The Mayor is the chief executive officer of the city. It is his duty to enforce the laws; to report yearly a statement of the city finances and the general condition of the city; to appoint the heads of the various departments; and to be responsible, in general, for the good order and government of the city.

The "commission plan" of city government and the "city manager plan" which are now much discussed cannot be tried in Indiana under the present constitution as the laws governing the cities are made by the Legislature and they must be uniform throughout the State.

Civic Pride. The people of a city should love their city, have true pride in it, be ready to serve it, promote its interest, and seek in every way to make it a better place in which to live. This does not mean to boast of it, nor to claim merits and attractions for it that it does not possess. But it means that the people should think so much of their city that they will be willing to seek its welfare above their own private and selfish interests; that they will aid in its government and improvement, help to enforce its laws, keep the streets and sidewalks clean, render the homes and lives of the people secure, and do all they can to make their home town an orderly, healthy, and beautiful city.

EXERCISES

1. How may the following abuses be prevented: (1) Burdening the city with debt. (2) Encumbering the streets, the common property of all. (3) Erecting unsanitary buildings. (4) Laying leaky water mains. (5) Polluting the water supply with sewage. (6) Laying inferior pavements.

2. Why is it the duty of the civic authorities to preserve in cities cheap water and light, good plumbing and ventilation, good transportation facilities, and to inspect tenement houses?

3. Is it the business of the city to improve housing conditions? Is it

the duty of the State or city to guarantee decent homes in which children may be safely brought up? Why?

4. What can be done for self-government and social coöperation in the schools? Organize the school into a city, on a plan of city government, with a mayor, council, city courts, police force, health officer, and other necessary officers. Would it be safe for the teacher to permit the school to govern itself? Would it be easier for the teacher to govern it?

5. How can civic pride be cultivated in the schools? What can the children do for the city? Are the children of the school willing to take the following "Civic Pledge":

"We who are soon to become active citizens in this good city desire to see our city orderly, moral, well-mannered, and beautiful. We desire to have her possess a name which is above reproach. And we therefore agree to keep from littering her streets and so far as possible to prevent others from doing the same, in order that our city may be as clean as she is great, and as pure as she is free."¹

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Students of Indiana history would find valuable the Publications of the Indiana Historical Society and the Indiana Quarterly Magazine of History, published by Indiana University.

¹ Waring, "Street Cleaning and Its Effects," p. 183.

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